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ABSTRACT

Trends in employment in West Germany evolved from analysis of a rural youth survey based on interviews from 1955, 1968, and 1980. Persons surveyed were from 17 to 28 years of age and lived in settlements of 5,000 inhabitants or less. During the time period (1955-1980), the youth employment rate decreased from 74% to 67%. Agricultural jobs decreased more than others. Although traditional rural handicrafts lost workers, modern handicrafts (especially car mechanics) gained workers. There was a decline of independent workers from 61% to 11% and a rise of employees and officials from 9% to 45% within two generations. The percentage of labourers increased from 30% to 44%. Changes in working conditions were characterized by preponderant employment as wage earners, reduction of working time, and transition from manual to mechanical work. The labour activities of most rural juveniles shifted from family farms and firms to foreign workshops and offices. In 1955, only 41% of the subjects commuted to work, but 90% commuted in 1980. Rural youth often chose unsuitable professions and often shifted jobs in search of suitable careers. Data indicated that rural settlements had changed in character as a result of occupational changes. (CM)

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XI. European Congress for Rural Sociology, Helsinki/Finland, August 9-15, 1981

Working group 4

Employment alternatives; old and new jobs in rural development

Prof. Dr. Ulrich Planck, University of Hohenheim, Federal Republic of Germany

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1. Preliminary note

1. Discussing rural development we should agree about what we mean by "rural". We should come to terms which wether anticipate the results of our discussion nor keep us from results. The various definitions of "rural" within the literature can be reduced to four approaches:

1. Occupational - i.e. those persons involved in agriculture and related occupations.
2. Cultural - i.e. those persons belonging to the farming or peasant class.
3. Organisational - i.e. members of rural youth organisations, leagues, unions etc.
4. Environmental - i.e. those persons who live in the countryside regardless of profession, tradition or membership of an organisation.

2. At one time these groupings would have been almost identical, and they still are identical in some less developed regions. But it characterized the rural development during the last 150 years that this identity disappeared more and more. The fact that we have to distinguish between these four approaches to define "rural" is an indicator by itself for the extent of change in rural areas. It seems to me that the approaches (1), (2), and (3) are too narrow for our topic because they exclude important processes in the field of rural employment. The approach (4) is more adequate. It considers the fact on which Howard Newby always insists that "the term rural is an empirical category rather than a sociological one - that it is merely a 'geographical expression'" (Newby 1981). In Germany, we underline the geographical nature of the term "rural" by using the term "ländlicher Raum" (rural area space).

3. We should not discuss here and now how we define rural areas against urban areas because the operationalization of "rural" is a question (a) of suitableness, (b) of the data available, and (c) of the peculiarity of the regarded region or country. One has to decide from case to case which definition of rural area is the most useful. In our rural youth investigation on which results my statements are based, we defined rural youth for some reasons as the total population between 17 and 28 years of age living in settlements with less than 5,000 inhabitants. We deliberately included by that the transitional zone from pure agrarian settlements to industrialized settlements and to small towns which are central places in rural areas. Of course, we drew new samples of juvenils in 1955, 1968, and 1980 but always in the same settlements.

4. To sum up, I refer to all those young people between the age of 17 and 28 years living in settlements with no more than 5,000 inhabitants regardless of what occupation (if any) they follow, regardless of any rural organisations with which they are affiliated, and regardless of wether their family traditions are based upon former agricultural working groups.

5. I would like to deduct the main lines of rural development from an analysis of rural youth for two reasons: at first because I just finished a rural youth survey based on comparable interviews in 1955, 1968 and 1980; at second because the youth reacts more sensible on changes than the adult generation. More accurately, the occupational structure of the younger generation gives us a rather good picture of the occupational structure in rural areas in the future. But also the behavioral and mental patterns of youth in general show into the future. In other words, trends in social development become more evident if we regard the youth.

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2. Findings

2.1. Employment Structure

6. During the time under record (1955-8o) the employment rate decreased from 74 to 67 % of the rural youth within the age of 17 to 28 years. That is not too much, and it lies rather within the survey's error. The deep-seated alterations become more visible if we split up the average figures according to sex and social status of the non employed people (table 1).

7. The young women are as ever less frequently employed than the young men in the countryside because the young mothers usually give up their job engagement in order to take care for their families and homes. By the way four of five persons interviewed are of the opinion that a woman should knock off work in case of children. The employment rate of unmarried men and girls is rather similar (66 %). It is no longer a privilege of men to enter a profession.

8. The reduction of employment is a little bit bigger with men as with women. This is mainly caused through the reduction of unemployment. The rate of jobless men dropped from 13 to 1 % during the time recorded. But the rate of unemployment oscillated, and we would have recorded a much higher rate of jobless young people if we surveyed the rural youth one year ago in 1979. As you can see on the table the rate of jobless women did not much change from 1955 to 198o because the jobless women declared themselves mostly as housewives in 1955.

9. Most remarkable is the steady increase of the categorie "other unemployed persons" from 5 to 25 % of men, and from 5 to 2o % of women. This category consists mainly of students. The rate of the students increased from 2 to 19 % of both men and women. I we include also the apprentices, we find that one of three rural juveniles (31 %) was under education or training in 198o, whereas one of forteen (7 %) was in this stage in 1955. Another 17 % aim at a higher job qualification. The employment rate decreased thus because more juveniles attend a high school or even a college, and therefore go in for a profession later.

1o. Additional occupation increased during the time recorded from 13 to 33 % of male and from 16 to 17 % of female rural youth. The increase of sideline jobs has two reasons: At first the transitional situation of business, especially farming, and secondly the reduction of work time. Many young men occupied in a non-agricultural profession, assist their parents in farming. Asked for the reasons why they perform a sideline job, 55 % indicated "assistance", 2o % "money making", 18 % just "fun", and 7 % other reasons. The reduction of the working time in the main job to five days per week, and eight hours per day rendered possible an extended engagement in sideline jobs. The young people have especially rather much free time for collaboration in the family holding or other family enterprises.

2.2. Occupational Structure

11. Considering the occupations actually practiced, we should properly devide the data according to sex. The data within the tables (3) and (4) show the following trends:

1. Agricultural jobs decreased more than all during the time recorded. The percentage of farmers, farm labourers and gardeners dropped from 38 to 9 % of the male rural youth, while the percentage of farm-women, female farm hands, and female gardeners did so from 49 to 6 % of female rural youth at work.
2. The traditional rural handicrafts like masons, carpenters, joiners, cartwrighters, saddlers, blacksmithes, taylors, and shoemakers lost also in number. Instead of them modern handicrafts like electricians, fitters, mechanicians, especially car mechanics, toolmakers gained in number.

3. The rate of women engaged in house-work and similar occupations was also recurrent. The rate of housekeepers, cooks, maids and related workers (including housewives) went down from 6o to 25 % of the working female youth.
4. Even the rate of unskilled workers decreased from 8 to 4 % of male, and from 16 to 7 % of female labour force.
5. The winner of the occupational development were (a) modern craftsmen as mentioned as well as other trained production-process workers, (b) sales workers (increasing from 4 to 11 % of male and from 8 to 36 % female labour force), (c) administrative and other clerical workers, (d) nurses, medical technicians and occupations related to beauty culture (increasing from 1 to 19 % of female labour force), and (e) professional and technical workers.

12. This radical structural change has been caused by the technical progress which set free many workers in farming and housekeeping. Like in all other European countries (see figure 2), the demand for labour per acre or per production unit dropped down thanks both the motorization and chemization of the agricultural production, and the delegation of food processing from farms to industrial plants.

13. The annual agrarian reports of the Federal Government show a rapid decline of the agricultural labour force sinde 195o (see figure 3). This process is reflected in the data of the rural youth surveys as follows (table 5). I think, that the percentage of farmers says sociologically more than the absolute number of farm workers because it shows how the farm workers fell more and more into the situation of a minority within the rural society. Three of five grand-fathers (fathers of the respondents in 1955), but two of five fathers and one of five respondents (198o) were engaged in agriculture. The rate of full-time farmers decreased from 49 to 5 % of the male rural population during two generations time.

14. The real situation becomes more clear if we imagine that there are more electricians, more mechanics, more sales workers youth than farmers emong the male rural. The minority of female farms workers is still more evident. Six times more rural girls and young women are working in offices than in agricultural households, and just as much practise as hairdressers. There are already a big number of villages in which farmers and farmer's wives as occupations are almost died out.

15. I would like to give as an example die occupational structure of an average Upper-Rhine village without any centrality. The number of inhabitants is around 3,ooo, the area is 975 ha, the distance to the nearest towns is between 2o and 3o kilometres. Nearly the half (48 %) of the young people aged 16-27 years did not yet enter into a profession (students), or withdrawed from business (housewives).

16. Among 656 young workers gainfully employed only 18 (3 %) are working in agricultural or related activities: 6 are gardeners, 5 grape growers, 4 female flower specialists, and 3 general farmers. On the other side there are for instance 49 clerical workers, 45 commercial employees, 3o shopgirls, 32 car mechanics, 29 electricians, 25 house maids, 23 industrial sales workers, 22 teachers, 18 bank employees, 17 cooks, 15 draughtsmen, 14 engin fitters, 14 dentist's assistants and technicians, 13 physician's assistants, 12 retailers, 12 masons, 11 locksmithes, 11 female hairdressers, 9 painters etc. The major groups are occupied as table 6 shows.

2.3. Social Structure

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17. Of course, the 17-28 year old people did mostly not yet reached their final professional positions. Most of them are at the beginning of their careers. Therefore one can only conditionally conclude from their actual position to their social status. The changes in the social structure of the rural youth between 1955 and 198o indicate nevertheless the trend of development. In former times the rural social structure was characterized by a relatively high proportion of selfemployed

and unpaid family workers. The percentage of independent farmers and craftsmen remained during the time recorded at 3-4 %, but the percentage of unpaid family workers fell from 32 to 3 %. The percentage of labourers decreased also from 38 to 24 % of the young people gainfully employed. Contrarily the percentage of employees and officials increased from 8 to 27 %. The rate of employees and officials should in fact much higher fixed because most of the juveniles still in education or job training shall lateron belong to this category.

18. Behind these structural data a social change is hidden which could be announced as the collective advancement out of the small peasant and rural working class into the middle class of employees and officials. The advancement has to be paid with a longer education period. A comparison between the various generations shows this trend yet clearer. In order to make the data more comparable we manipulate the data concerning the generation of the sons (respondents of 1980) as follows: we include (a) the unpaid family workers in the category of the workers on own account, (b) the students in the category of employees and officials, (c) the jobless in the category of the labourers, and (d) the apprentices and the members of the armed forces proportionally to all categories. The table (7) shows above all the decline of the independent workers from 61 to 11 % as well as the raise of the employees and officials from 9 to 45 % within two generations. The percentage of labourers increased from 30 to 44 % which indicates that a smaller part of the formerly independent workers remained in the lower working class.

2.4. Working conditions

19. The main changes of the working conditions could be summarized in three points:

1. Preponderant employment as wage earners,
2. reduction of working time, and
3. transition from manual to mechanical work.

20. The labour activities of most rural juvenils shifted from family farms and firms to foreigne workshops and offices. If we regard the full-time employed persons we found them employed in

	1955	1980
	%	%
owned businesses	14	1
businesses of parents or other relations	43	9
businesses of other persons	43	87
total	100	100
n = 100	1.029	786

In 1980, more persons were employed in public utilities than in own businesses, namely 12 %.

21. In connection with the shift from family to foreigne businesses the size of workshops increased in which the rural young people are working. Furthermore there is now a clear separation of working place and dwelling place. That means labour does no longer join the rural family members but separate them. In 1955 only 41 % of the active rural juvenils rushed away in the morning for work, but in 1980 90 % has to cover a distance from their home to their workshop. In other words: working and dwelling place were closed together in 59 % of all cases in 1955, while only in 10 % of all cases in 1980. Only 16 % of the young workers walk to their working place or use a bicycle, three quarter ride by their own motorcar, and 10-15 % use public transport facilities.

22. The weekly working time of rural youth lies above the average of the total labour force in the Federal Republic of Germany. The weekly working hours were indeed

reduced to 4o-42 hours for most of them. But the family workers, especially in farming, are usually working more hours, and that 43 % 51-6o hours, and 34 % more than 6o hours per week. Furthermore all persons practicing a side-job are working more than 42 hours.

23. The majority of the active rural youth enjoys holidays of which former rural generations could only dream. The situation concerning vacation duration improved as follows (table 8). While in 1954 nearly half of the active rural youth took no holidays, only 5 % in 1979 did so. The standard is now to be three or even more weeks annually on leave. This development could be realized because most of the rural young workers are subjects to tarif agreements. The family workers in the agricultural sector could indeed more often take holidays than before, but one third of the young farmers and more than half of the young country-women were not on leave in 1979. Only each twentiethst young country-women enjoyed the standard of more than three vacation weeks.

24. The transition from manual to mechanical work took place in all fields of activity, in agriculture and house-work as well as in workshops or offices. The figure of 341 tractor-Kw per 1oo ha farmland (1979) gives an impression of the high level of mechanization of West-Germany's agriculture. The rural youth survey of 198o shows that more than 9o % of the rural households are well equipped with kitchen machinery, automatic washers, sewing-machines etc. Workshops and offices are also very well supplied with all modern facilities.

25. This equippement caused usually a remarkable reduction of heavy physical work in favour of operation and control activities. But also in another way the shift from physical to mental activities went on, namely through the choice of profession. Under the assumptions that all juvenils in farming, house-work and handicrafts are mainly physical active, and that all juvenils in sales and clerical work are mainly spiritual active, we get the following result (table 9). The percentage of mainly spiritual active people increased from 9 to 28 % of the young men, and from 16 to 59 % of girls and young women. If we include all the rural juvenils which at present attend a high school or a college to the category "spiritual workers", and all jobless and house-wives to the category "physical workers", we come to the conclusion that the percentage of mainly spiritual active persons increased from 1o % (1955) to 46 % (198o).

2.5. Choice of Profession

26. The choice of a profession as well as finding the suitable job were without problems in former times because sons and daughters walked usually in their parents occupational steps, and followed the traditional careers. Most of them entered one of the customary agricultural and industrial occupations. Since agriculture and handicraft offer labour only for a minority of rural youth nowadays, choice of profession become more and more a problem for rural juveniles, and they receive not enough assistance by their parents or other persons to solve it properly.

27. Asked who or what induced them to learn a special profession, only 1o % mentioned their parents. This result confirmes the former statement again that rural parents discuss relatively seldom and less competent the choice of profession with their adolescents. Informations about modern occupations and training courses are mostly absent. The officials of the labour administration overlook the multiplicity of occupation but the vocational guidance has been consultet only of 3 % of the juveniles surveyed. Even the school teachers' influence on job finding was with 2 % of the cases very meagre. Relatives (parents exluded) and friends were more important, then 8 % of the respondents mentioned them as decident informants.

28. Three quarters of the respondents did not explain their choice of profession with personal influence but with facts. 38 % chose nominally their profession because

of their special interest. 33 % were attracted to their profession for certain advantages or amenities. One quarter was compulsed for instance because a training place was just free, no other training place was available, or because the obligation to take over the parents business. But compared with the situation of 1955 the compulsory nature of profession choice went back for two reasons: (1) more occupational alternatives were opened for the rural youth as a result of better education, (2) the supply of jobs, especially of apprenticeships increased. The efforts made in view to the youth unemployment show first results.

29. The rural juvenils can more frequently choose the wished profession than ever before. The refusual of the profession wished concerned one third of the rural young people in 1955 and only one quarter in 198o. The reduction of such cases has various reasons. Above all the historical obstacles due to the war and expulsion were no more effective as they were in 1955. Furthermore, rural parents do no as frequent hinder their children to enter a wished profession as they did one generation before. Financial narrow passes become nowadays more seldom thanks financial aids by the state. 3o % of the respondents in 198o made use of educational grants. It is worth to be mentioned that in 198o more respondents than in 195o answered that a lack of education hindered them to realize their occupational wishes. Regarded the higher level of education reached, this indicates higher occupational goals today than just a trained job as in 1955. One of ten rural juvenils could not learn the wished occupation because a lack of training places. Most of them who could not learn the wished occupation practice now an unskilled occupation or went through a handicrafts apprenticeship.

3o. The wish to change the job is rather frequent. One third of the respondents would like to shift to another occupation if they had another chance. Of course those juvenils which could not realize their wishes more often (7o %) than others (26 %). A wrong vocation was corrected partly during the period of training, partly in the stage of occupational consolidation. At least one times changed their job (not regarding the shift from employment to housekeeping):

5 % of the 17-19 years aged,
12 % of the 2o-22 years aged,
24 % of the 23-25 years aged,
34 % of the 26-28 years aged.

31. We can draw from these figures the conclusion (1) that rural adolescents relatively often choose an unsuitable profession, (2) that the period of occupation finding drags on the whole life time which we covered, namely 17 to 28 years of age. A second wave of job shifting follows the first one in which new aspects has to be considered partly related to family foundation. These are, above all, aspects of income, job security, career, and the professional chances. The motives for realizing occupational change are financial (3o %), familiar (12 %), bad working conditions (1o %), lack of work (9 %), lack of advancement opportunities (8 %), and general dislike (1o %).

32. Persons coming from lower classes and employed as simple workers change more often their jobs than members of the middle class do. It should be mentioned in this connection that some apprenticeships. especially in agriculture and in certain handicrafts, lead into an impasse because there are not enough generatively complete posts for skilled labourers. Nearly half (44 %) of the respondents who changed their job learned at first a handicraft, 18 % made a business training. Nursing and some technical jobs belong also to those professions which are frequently changed. The winner of the occupational shifting are above all teaching professions, clerical professions, drivers, and some other special jobs like tool makers. The shift from one profession to another is mostly experienced as a welcome transition from a general to a more specific job, from a hard to a more pleasant job, or as a social raise to a better paid post or to a higher status-position. The job change is relatively seldom combined with social descent.

3. Conclusions

33. The new employment structure in rural areas has some consequences for the individuals as well as for the social life.

34. For instance, raising the skills level of, increasing demands for job training of farm workers were combined with the rapid decrease in the agricultural workforce. Whereas until recently the agricultural sector of economy offered mainly manual employment to the least skilled within the rural population, its requirement are nowadays a new kind of specialized, well educated labourer, a labourer who is able to handle engines, machines as well as chemicals. The knowledge needed is often such a specialized one that in spite of the high degree of specialization in many farms the individual farmer or farm hand are not able to perform all necessary activities. Therefore experts have to be consulted, for instance extension workers or specialized service workers. The all-round-farmer gives more and more way the specialized farmer, and even the specialized farmer needs assistance by specialists.

35. Because of the diminishing agricultural labour force due to technical progress, especially the use of motors and engines, farm labouring has ceased to be a group activity. Modern farming is mostly performed in isolation. This has not only effects on the mentality of farm workers but also enormous consequences for the rural families and communities. Many customs and usages were based on common work. They have now longer a real base.

36. The time schedule of the villages is no longer ascertained by the daily and seasonal rhythm of life processes but by fixed legal times of the begin and end of work hours, by office hours of chops and banking firms, by consultation hours of physicians, lawyers and authorities, by the schedules of bus-lines and railways. The working day is divided in working hours and leisure time, the year in working weeks and holidays for the majority of the rural youth. Working hours are regulated by external institution; the leisure time is in large part determined through the schedules of television programs and other entertainments. In other words, the norms and patterns of the modern industrial society form also the behavior of most young rural people.

37. As a result of all these processes of change, rural settlements have themselve completely changed in character. Instead of being occupational places where the majority are locally employed in agriculture and related occupations, the villages have become principally dormitories of commuters who daily leave the village in various directions for education, work, shopping, and recreation. Only one quarter of the rural youth aged 17-28 years (including housewives, jobless) stays over day in the rural places of residence. Throught that the homogenity of life pattern and requirements disappears. This leads compulsoryly to conflicts among the inhabitants of villages. The "mechanical solidarity" in the sense of Emile Durkheim decomposes without to be replaced completely by "organic solidarity". The village cohesion looses itself, the village "Gemeinschaft" dissolves in many cases. The signs of social erosion are no longer to disregard in rural areas.

38. I summarize the facts and findings in ten trends of rural development:

1. The rural employment situation is no longer determined by traditional jobs but by more or less unknown new jobs.
2. The rural employment situation is no longer determined by the primary sector of economy but by the secundary and tertiary sector.
3. The rural employment situation is no longer determined by manual activities but by mechanical and spiritual ones.
4. The rural employment situation is no longer determined by unskilled activities but by skilled ones.
5. The rural employment situation is no longer determined by all-round manpower but by specialists.

6. The rural employment situation is no longer determined by collaboration in family enterprises but by employment in foreign firms and public services.
7. The rural employment situation is no longer determined by Gemeinschaft in the sense of Ferdinand Tönnies but by Gesellschaft-like relations.
8. The rural employment situation is no longer mainly determined by self-determination but by foreign-determination.
9. The rural settlements are no longer determined by working function but by residence function.
10. The rural societies are no longer determined by homogenity of activities, needs, and interests but by heterogenity of activities, needs, and interests.

Literature

Ulrich Planck: The way of life of West German rural youth. Munich 1956.

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Table 1: Employment and unemployment of the rural youth according to sex, FRG 1955 and 198o

	Men		Women	
	1955	198o	1955	198o
	%	%	%	%
Employed persons [1]	82	74	64	59
unemployed persons	18	26	36	41
- home wives	-	-	28	19
- jobless	13	1	3	2
- other (students etc.)	5	25	5	2o
Total	1oo	1oo	1oo	1oo
n = 1oo	615	623	539	522

[1] including apprentices

Table 2: Additional employment of rural youth according to sex, FRG 1955 and 198o

	Men		Women	
	1955	198o	1955	198o
	%	%	%	%
Additional employment in the family enterprise	1o	25	13	14
Additional employment in another firm	3	8	3	3
No additional employment	87	67	84	83
total of employed persons	1oo	1oo	1oo	1oo
n = 1oo	5o6	463	343	312

Table 3: Occupational structure of the male rural youth, FRG 1955 and 198o

Occupation	Percentage of employed men	
	1955	198o
Farmer, gardener	38	9
Construction worker	11	8
Mechanical worker	8	15
Labourers not elsewhere classified	8	4
Joiner	6	3
Sales worker	4	11
Electrician	3	12
Painter	2	2
Baker, butcher	3	5
Skilled worker	2	1
Teacher	1	1
Pressman	1	1
Driver	1	4
Forest worker	1	1
Taylor	1	o
Shoemaker	1	-
Blacksmith	1	-
Administrative worker	1	5
Cartwright	1	-
Saddler	1	-
Hairdresser	1	-
Architect, Engineer	o	4
Tool-maker	o	6
Public service worker	2	4
Other craftmen	2	2
Other occupations	o	2
Total	1oo	1oo
n = 1oo	422	461

Table 4: Occupational structure of female rural youth, FRG 1955 and 198o

Occupation	Percentage of employed women			
	including housewives		excluding housewives	
	1955	198o	1955	198o
Housewife outside farming	21	19	-	-
Housewife inside farming	3o	6	-	-
Labourer not elsewhere classified	13	5	16	7
Farmer, farmhand	9	4	49	6
Housemaid	8	2	1o	2
Taylor	4	6	6	7
Clerical worker	4	1o	5	13
Shopgirl	3	11	4	14
Other sales worker	3	16	4	22
Waiter	1	o	2	o
Hairdresser	1	4	1	5
Teacher, Kindergartner	1	4	1	5
Nurse	o	9	o	14
Other occupation	2	4	2	5
Total	1oo	1oo	1oo	1oo
n = 1oo	525	4o2	415	3o7

Table 5: Agricultural activities according to generations, FRG 1955 and 198o

	Percentage of the total rural youth			
	1955		198o	
	Fathers	Respondents	Fathers	Respondents
Full-time farmer	49	32	19	5
Part-time farmer	1o	8 [1)]	2o	14 [1)]
Non-farmer	41	6o	61	81
Total	1oo	1oo	1oo	1oo
n = 1oo	1.154	1.154	1.145	1.145

1) Assistance in the family enterprise

Table 6: Occupational structure of the inhabitants (16-27 years old) of the village Sasbach, district Ortenau, 1979

Major group		Percentage
0	Professional, technical and related workers	17
1/2	Administrative and clerical workers	7
3	Sales workers	21
4	Farmers and related workers	3
5	Miners and related workers	-
6	Workers in transport and communication occupations	2
7/8	Craftsmen and production-process workers	29
9	Service and recreation workers	11
1o	Workers not classifiable by occupation	1o
Total		1oo
n = 1oo		646

Table 7: Occupational position of male rural population according to generations, FRG

Occupational position	The generation of		
	grandfathers 1)	fathers 2)	sons 3)
	%	%	%
Workers on own account	61	32	11
Officials and employees	9	29	45 [4)]
Labourers	3o	39	44 [5)]
Total	1oo	1oo	1oo
n = 1oo	615	623	623

1) Fathers of the respondents 1955. 2) Fathers of the respondents 198o.
3) Respondents 198o. 4) including students, 5) including jobless.

Table 8: Holidays of the employed rural youth, FRG 1954 and 1979

Weeks of vacation	Rural youth	
	1954	1979
	%	%
no vacation	47	5
one week	8	3
two weeks	35	7
three weeks	6	21
more than three weeks	4	64
Total (active juveniles) n = 1oo	1oo 847	1oo 749

Table 9: The professional activities of rural youth according to kind, FRG 1955 and 198o

Kind of activity	Percentage of professional active juvenils	
	1955	198o
	%	%
mainly physical active	88	62
mainly spiritual active	12	38
Total n = 1oo	1oo 842	1oo 769

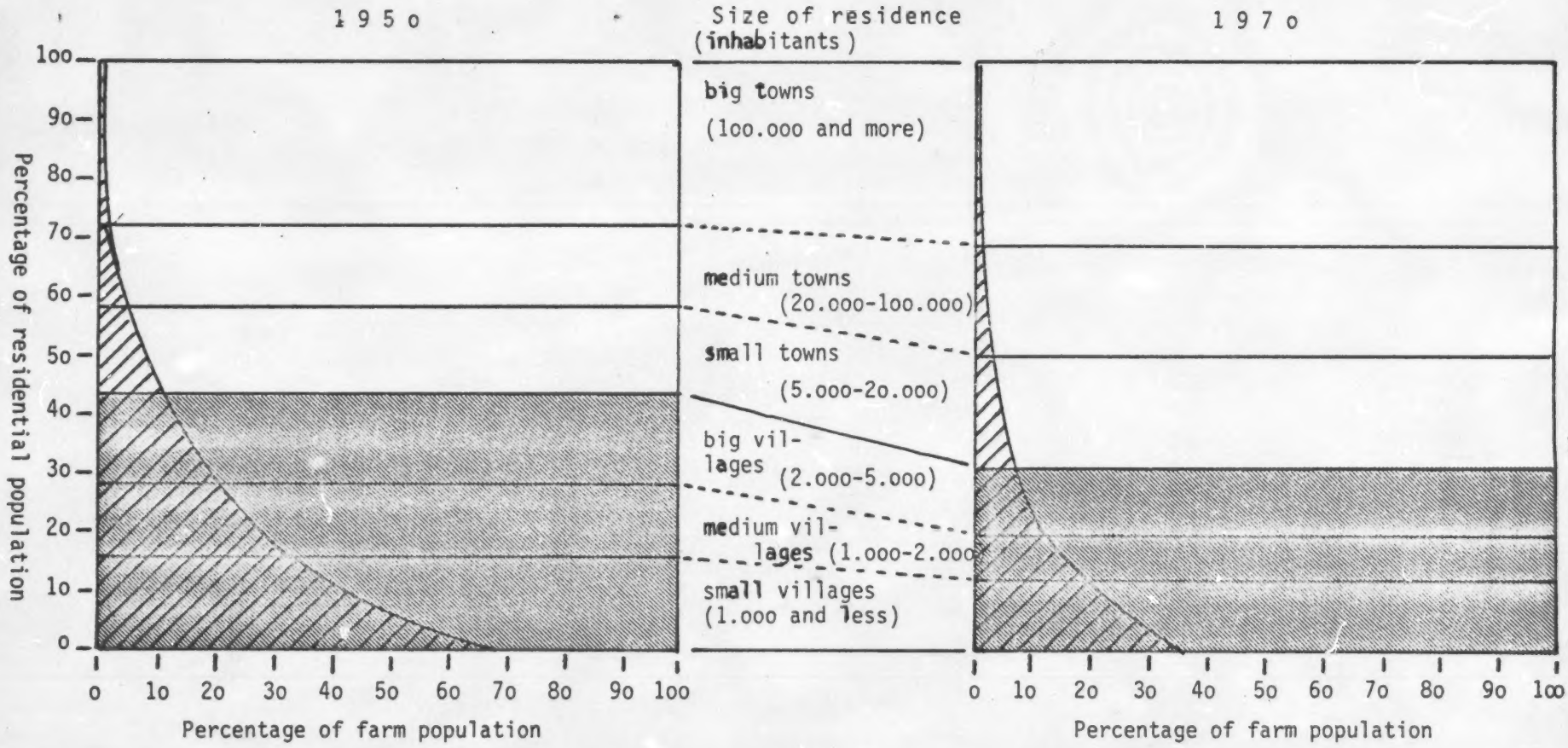

Figure 1: The residential population of the Federal Republic of Germany according to the size of residence and rate of farming population (hatched), 1950 and 1970

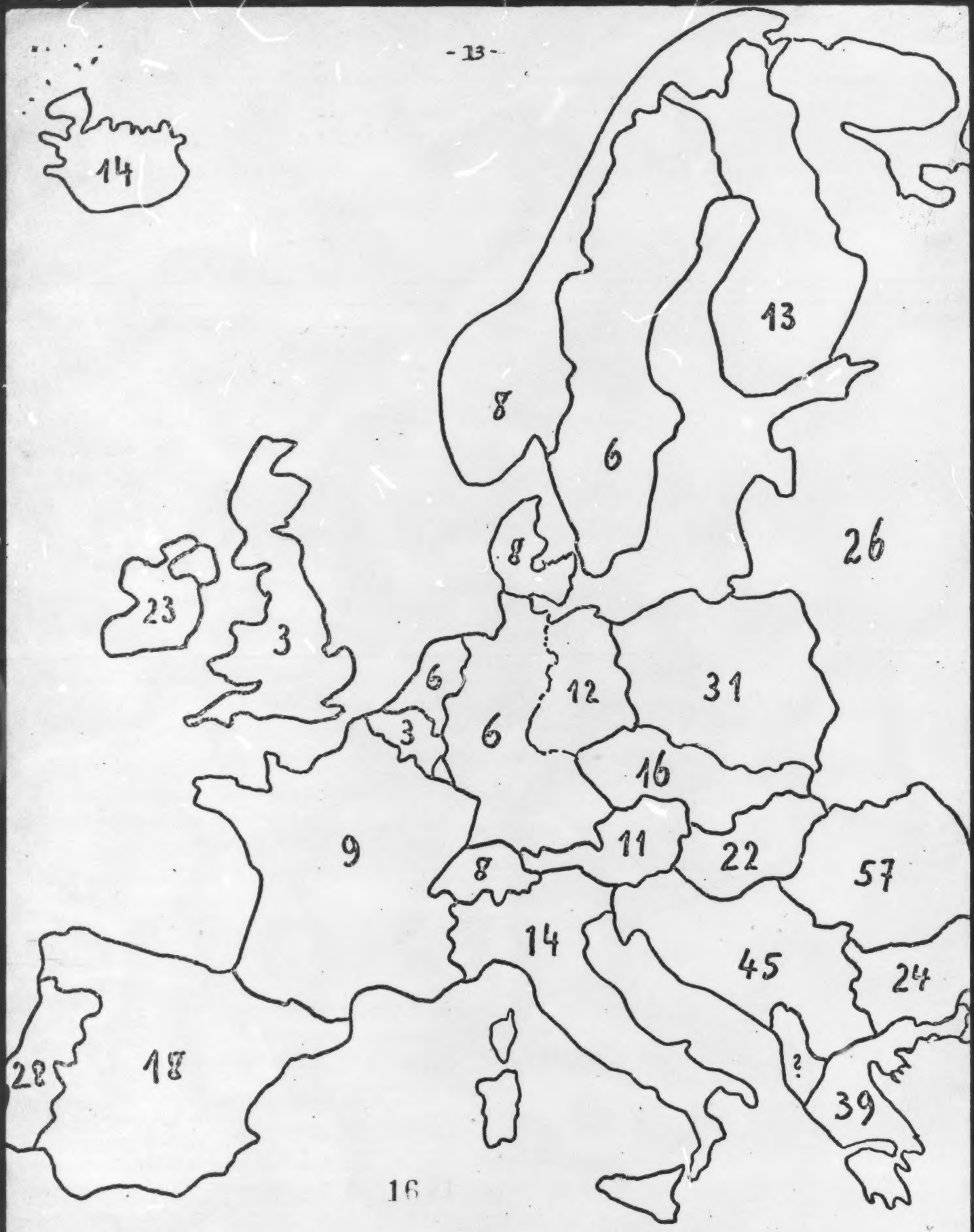

Figure 2:Percentage of labour force engaged in agriculture, 1977
(Source: Statistical Yearbook 1980 of the F R G)

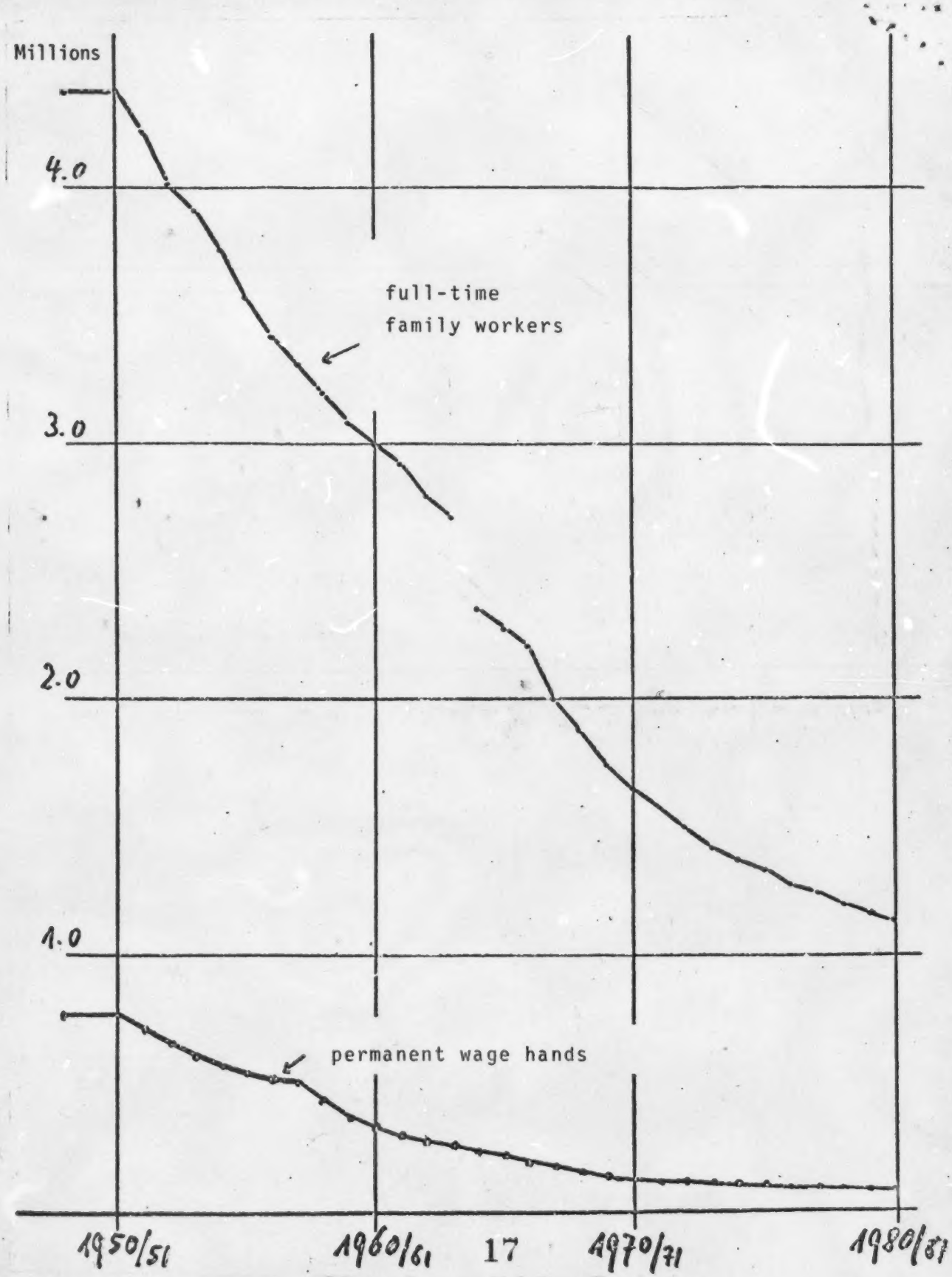

Figure 3: Labour force engaged in agriculture, FRG 1950/51 to 1980/81
(Source: Agrarberichte der Bundesregierung)